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POLICIES, PROGRAMMES AND PRACTICES FOR MAXIMIZING THE USE OF EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

Report to the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning Development and Utilization on Policies, Programmes and Practices for Maximizing the use of Educational Resources

I. Introduction

The development priorities, objectives and strategies of the African region are clearly spelt out in the Lagos Plan of Action adopted by the Assembly of the Heads of State and Government of the Organization of African Unity in 1980; in the African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery 1986-1990 again adopted by the Asembly of the Heads of States and Government in 1985; and in the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development 1986-1990 adopted by the special session of the UN General Assembly. All these are the result of serious consultation, collaboration and a commitment to joint action by African States to steer together the ship of development to a brighter future. The factors which have contributed to the present state of affairs are a mixture of economic, social, political, educational and environmental factors. In respect of education, the development of education in general is the result of a complex interactions amongst different sectors of society with the economic, social, political and cultural life of the people. In response to these interacting factors and an examination of the social context of society over the last two decades, reveal four possible approaches to the development of education in Africa viz:

- Education as a social institution to ensure that the social needs of society are catered for;
- Education as a series of measures and practices that constitute education process;
- Education as a body of knowledge skills, additional disposition and behaviour paterns: i.e. the education context; and
- Education as the result of product of educational measures i.e. the criteria of ability to meet the needs of society.

It is, therefore, proper to review, examine and analyse the development of education in Africa over the last two decades taking into consideration some of the factors which influence educational development. Most of these factors lie outside the direct control of those responsible for education and its development. Some of these factors are: demographic, economic, political; social and cultural; environmental; progress of science and technology; and exogenous factors. Thus the review which follows here under will not only look at the various approaches to educational development, but will also examine the factors which influence education and the resource utilization in education, among other things.

At this point, it should be emphasized that inspite of the massive investments made to education, the vast quantitative expansion of education at all levels of education, African educational systems in the eighties still appear antiquated, inequitable and ill-functioning. They appear ill-equipped to solving the African socio-economic crisis; they continue to create inequalities between the educated and uneducated: perpetuate rural-urban drift; continue to lead to waste and inefficient use of resources as will be demonstrated later; and are failing to equip their outputs with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values conducive to self-reliance, productivity and self-fulfilment.

This criticism of educational systems has been voiced in many African countries, mainly, because of: the failure of educational systems to keep pace with the demand for education by the frowing population, and the limited educational opportunities available to youth and adults, and the emergence of the problem of turning out school leavers without vocational orientation, and therefore unable to engage in productive and socio-economic activities for self improvement and fulfilment.

These features have been prevelant over the last decade and are bound to continue for the foreseeable future for a number of reasons viz.: the unsuitability of the curriculum to the socio-economic development of African countries; the neglect of vocational and technical education required in response to the needs of the economy; the emphasis attached to formal and general education at the expense of technical/vocational and non-formal education; the inappropriate teaching methods used by inadequately qualified and untrained teachers; the terminal dead-end nature of education at each of the tripartitions of the educational system; and the diminishing financial resources being made available to education resulting into lack of equipment, textbooks and instructional materials with the resultant lowering of quality.

In pointing out these short-comings, no claim is being made to say that African education over the last two decades has been a failure. Rather the point is being made of the inability of African education to cope with the current social and economic crisis and in ensuring that basic human needs are fulfilled.

This report therefore will examine, review, analyse and appraise educational policies, programmes and practices over the last decade; how these have influenced the development of education; and the effective utilization of resources. In particular it will examine:

(i) recent trends in African educational development; how best educational targets have been achieved more economically to meet current economic and development needs and priorities;

(ii) the factors which have influenced and will continue to influence the development of education;

(iii) the optimum ways in which educational resources have been and will continue to be effectively utilized in the face of stringent economic measures; and

(iv) current educational policies, programmes and practices as regards investment in education.

II. Recent Trends in Educational Development

Following the independence of many African countries in the sixties, a number of issues became evident. First there was the need to fulfil the pre-independence promises that education would be provided to the majority of the people. Second, there was the urgent need to prepare for the expected exodus of key expatriate personnel even without the enforced localization of personnel to ensure the desired step-up of the rate of development and economic growth. Third, there was the urgent need to review the inherited education system, its structure, curriculum, methods and content in relation to African development. Fourth, the need for equity and a judicious utilization of resources.

It was in the light of these pressing issues that African States adopted the Addis Ababa plan on education and spelt out the long term targets for education for the period 1961-1980 as follows:

(a) primary education to cover broadly six years would be universal, compulsory and free;

(b) education at the second level would be provided to 30 percent of the children who completed primary school;

(c) higher education would be provided, mostly in Africa itself to 20 percent of those who complete secondary education;

(d) the imrpovement of the quality of African schools and universities would be a constant aim; and

(e) the percentage of national income earmarked for financing education would be increased from 3 percent in 1961 to 4 percent in 1965 and to 5 percent in 1980[1/].

At the Tananarive Conference, the targets for higher education were increased further from what had been stated in Addis Ababa, thus:[2/]

Table 1: The targets of the Addis Ababa and Tananarive Conference for Higher Education in Middle Africa

	1961	1965	1970	1975	1980
Tananarive Plan Enrolments (1000)	-	46	80	144	274
As % of relevant age group		0.35	0.55	0.89	1.51
Addis Ababa Plan					
Enrolment as % of relevant age group	0.2	0.2	0.4	1.2	2.0

As table 2 shows, both the Addis Ababa and Tananarive targets in Table 1 had not been achieved by 1980, let alone by 1983, Gross enrolment ratio for the second level was 16 percent and 20 percent in 1980 and 1983 respectively, far short of the Addis Ababa target of 30 percent in 1980.

1/ UNESCO/ECA, The Addis Ababa Plan, Final Report, Addis Ababa, 1961.

2/ UNESCO, Tananarive Plan, Final Report, Tananarive, 1963.

At the tertiary level, only 1.2% of the age group had been enrolled as opposed to 2.0% and 1.5% of the Addis Ababa and Tananarive targets respectively in 1980. At the primary level, few countries had free and compulsary education, and indeed only a handful of countries had universal primary education.

Table 2 also shows that vast expansion of education has taken place at all levels of the educational system in Africa. However, it must be pointed out that while education has been growing very fast in terms of quantity, other factors have not remained static. For instance the population of African countries is expected to double by the year AD 2,000, i.e. from just over 400 million in 1976 to over 800 million in the year 2,000 AD. This means that more and greater effort has to be put into the provision of education.

Many African countries have neither the capacity nor the capability to absorb the fast increase of school age population. The problem of means and ways has kept and will continue to keep many of the youngsters out of school age population there have been increases in the absolute numbers of those out of school. As UNESCO pointed out a few years, ago, the fast rise in population is likely to lead to actual declines in the rate of schooling and the absolute increase in the rate of illiteray. This situation is illustrated in Table 3 which shows more out of school youths in the age-group 12-17 in 1980 of 38,380 as opposed to 27,170 in 1970 of the same age-group.

Three points ought to be mentioned in connection with the quantitative expansion and the efficient utilization of resources. First, evidence shows in may African countries that participation rates are calculated on the basis of enrolment rates without taking into account the high drop-out rates of some 25 per cent in many countries of those pupils who are enrolled at school. Also, no account is taken of the repetition rates in many countries which varies between 12 to 14 per cent depending on the subregions of the continent.

If these two rates are taken into account, then the actual enrolment rates in Africa are much lower than the figures given in Table 2. In this regard, greater efforts have to be made in the expansion of education than it may appear now.

Second, following the Addis Ababa plan and the various national education plans which appeared in the sixties and seventies, the educational policies of many countries were designed to promote first and foremost secondary and higher education. These policies however did not and/or took very little account of the country's needs and resources. Consequently, there were disproportionate development of educational structures; neglect of technical/vocational education; dead-end nature of education at each of the tripartitions; greater social inequalities; and above all, inefficient use of human, material and financial resources. In fact, the high rates of repetition and dropout have led to inefficient use of teachers and financial resources.

Third, a number of problems have arisen as a result of the quantitative expansion of education. Notable among these problems have been the disparities in enrolments between rural and urban areas where those of the former are about a third of the latter. Then there are those problems associated with inequalities in access to education and in the chances of success; also there are differences

Table 2: Enrolments in forty six African countries

	1960	1970	1975	1980	1983
Primary education					
Number of students	11,853	20,971	30,117	47,068	51,345
Index (1960-100)	100	177	254	397	433
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:		5.9%	6.4%	7.1%	6.6%
from 1970 to:			7.5%	8.4%	7.1%
from 1975 to:				9.3%	6.9%
from 1980 to:					2.9%
Gross enrolment ratio	36%	48%	58%	76%	75%
Secondary education					
Number of students	793	2,597	4,284	8,146	11,119
Index (1960-100)	100	327	540	1,027	1,402
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:		12.6%	11.9%	12.4%	12.2%
from 1970 to:			10.5%	12.1%	11.8%
from 1975 to:				13.7%	12.7%
from 1980 to:					10.9%
Gross enrolment ratio	3%	7%	10%	16%	20%
Tertiary education					
Number of students	21	116	216	337	437
Index (1960-100)	100	552	1,029	1,605	2,081
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:		18.6%	16.8%	14.9%	14.1%
from 1970 to:			13.3%	11.3%	10.8%
from 1975 to:				9.3%	9.2%
from 1980 to:					9.1%
Gross enrolment ratio	0.2%	0.6%	0.8%	1.2%	1.4%
All levels					
Number of students	12,667	23,684	34,617	55,551	62,901
Index (1960-100)	100	187	273	439	497
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:		6.5%	6.9%	7.7%	7.2%
from 1970 to:			7.9%	8.9%	7.8%
from 1975 to:				9.9%	7.8%
from 1980 to:					4.2%

Note: Numbers of students in thousands.

Source: ECA Secretariat

Table 3: Out-of-School Youth in Africa 1960, 1980 and 2000 A.D.

	Age-Group 6-11				Age-Group 12-17 (1000)			
Year	(1000) Popula-tion	(1000) Attend School	(1000) Out of school	% out of School	Popula-tion	Attend School	Out of School	% out of School
1960	40,650	12,700	27,950	68.8	33,320	5,150	20,170	84.5
1980	72,580	44,600	27,980	38.3	59,250	20,870	38,380	64.8
2000	134,340	106,010	28,330	21.1	111,820	58,640	53,180	47.6

Source: UNESCO, Document ED-82/MINEDAF/Ref.2, Table 69

in the quality of education consequent upon the teachers' qualifications, lack of instructional facilities and materials, equipment and textbooks. These are a few of the problems having arisen as a result of vast increases in the expansion of education over the last two decades.

III. Factors influencing the development of education in Africa

A lot has been written about factors which have contributed to the development of education in Africa the last two decades. Some of these factors are: demographic, economic, environmental; political, social and cultural; progress in science and technology; and exogenous factors.

(a) Demographic

No African country in the seventies had its population growing at less than 2 per cent per annum. More than two-thirds had their population growing at 2.5 per cent or more per annum. In fact betwen 1970 and 1980 Africa's population grew at 2.9 per cent per annum while that of the world at 1.9 per cent and Africa's population is projected to grow at 3.2 per cent between 1981 and the year 2000 A.D.

At the same time, life expectancy has improved greatly for most African countries, and infant mortality has been reduced so much so that Africa today has the youngest population of any region in the world. It is therefore not surprising to see that one in every three persons in Africa is of primary or secondary school age as compared to one in five in Latin America or one in six in Europe. What is more is that between 1984 and 2000 AD Africa's school age population will grow at 3.3 per cent pen annum, and by all accounts, this is a massive explosion which cannot be easily contained by current educational efforts.

In an attempt to match the rate of population growth with the demand for education, many African countries have been seriously handicapped by the lack of sufficient resources in terms of trained teachers; finance and educational (i.e. residential, recreational and instructional) facilities, training materials, textbooks and equipment. Certainly teacher-pupil ratios have remained very high in spite of the efforts made to train more teachers and improve their conditions of service.

Perhaps of greater significance is the fact that in 1983, there were 51.3 million primary and 11.1 million secondary places in 46 ECA African countries for which statistics were available. To maintain the 1983 participation rates in these countries by the year 2000 AD, these figures would have to become 90.7 million and 19.7 million respectively.(Table 4(a)). These figures become even more alarming when considered in terms of the projected gross enrolment at all levels of the education system in the whole of Africa. According to projections made in 1983, by the year 2008 AD total gross enrolment for universal primary school is estimated to reach around 176 million which secondary school would be around 70 million pupils, and higher education around 9 million students. (Table 4(b)). In terms of resources that would have to be provided for the building of new schools; training of teachers; purchase of equipment and instructional materials; and maintenance and running expenses of institutions, the task appears monumental for Africa countries. The consequence would be a serious fall in educational standards.

What is more is that there is the trend in Africa to devolve responsibility of paying for and managing education from the Central Government to the parents and the community. However as the number of school-age population is growing faster than the number of adults (working or not), the burden of supporting education through parents or the community in a world with a shrinking adult population is going to be very difficult. Indeed the extended family system as a source of financing education is likely to break down.

(b) Economic factors

Over the last two decades, Africa has come to understand how education and the economy interact and the development of one is conditioned by the other. Indeed the prospects for the development of education have been greatly affected by the recession in the world economy and therefore adjustments have to be made in educational planning so as to meet the new situation.

Since the beginning, the 1980's Africa has been ravaged by a serious economic crisis complicated by a wide spread drought which hit a large number of countries. Although Africa's immediate concerns are those of economic recovery and alleviating the current socio-economic crisis, it is a fact that amongst Africa's most urgent priorities are the acquisition of scientific and technological resources and the provision of education and training to ensure that the region can fight the forces of famine, hunger, disease, drought etc... It must be emphasized that such prospects are far from favourable for education: first in terms of the social and economic demand for education and training; second in terms of the resources which are assigned to education and training; and third in terms of the projected increase in the labour force and the attendant open unemployment and under-employment by the year 2008 A.D. (Table 4(b)).

This last situation should be considered in the light of the critical economic situation which existed since the early 1980s in Africa. Of the 50 African countries, 21 registered a negative growth rate in 1984; eleven had a GDP growth rate of less than 3 per cent and only five had a GDP growth rate of 8 per cent or more. These figures rebounded in 1985 and 1986(see Table 5).

Table 4(a): Primary and Secondary Population and Enrolment in forty six African countries. Actual (1983) and Projected (2000)

	Primary education			Secondary education		
	1983	2000	% Change 1983-2000	1983	2000	% Change 1983-2000
School age population						
Actual	68.5	-	-	55.6	-	-
Projected	-	120.8	76%	-	98.6	77%
School enrolment						
Actual	51.3	-	-	11.1	-	-
Projected assuming:						
Gross enrolment ratio same as in 1983	-	90.7	77%	-	19.7	77%
Enrolment ratio 100%, no repetition and no dropout	-	120.9	136%	-	98.8	78.8%
Enrolment ratio 100%, repetition and dropout same as in 1983	-	131.8	157%	-	105.5	85.0%

Note: Population and enrolment figures in millions
Source: ECA Secretariat

Table 4(b): Projected Education and Employment in 2008 (in millions)

	2000	2008
Education enrolment	190.5	243.6
First level	136.9	175.9
Second level	49.0	70.0
Third level	5.6	8.7
Labour force a/	383.8	510.3
Rural	219.5	286.8
Urban	164.2	223.5
Wage employment b/	131.6	178.8
Open unemployment c/	32.7	44.7
Underemployment d/	166.3	238.8
Rural	140.0	203.0
Urban	26.3	35.8

Source: ECA projections, 1983

a/ Excluding those in full-time education, medical and penal institutions as well as those in the armed forces (approximately 5 per cent of the age group 15-65).

b/ Representing workers engaged in the formal wage sector of the economy for no less than 15 hours week for pay.

c/ Representing all those looking for work in the formal, informal or subsistence sector of the economy without success.

d/ All those in employment whose productivity because of health, personality or technical reasons, is lower than what is possible given the existing production conditions.

Table 5: Frequency Distribution of the Regions Countries According to GDP Growth Rate *

Growth Rates	1984	1985	1986 (a)	1987(b)
Negative	21	11	10	5
0 - less than 3%	11	14	11	17
3 - less than 5%	10	14	24	24
5 - 8%	3	5	3	4
8% or more	5	6	2	-

Source/ ECA Secretariat
* GDP measured at 1980 prices
(a) Preliminary estimate (b) forecast

Table 6: Public Recurrent Expenditure per Student in Sub-Saharan Africa 1970-1983

	1970	1975	1980	1983
Expenditure per primary student as % of GNP per capita	$67 16%	$61 19%	$51 16%	$48 15%
Expenditure per secondary student as % of GNP per capita	$362 111%	$308 93%	$125 62%	$223 62%
Expenditure per tertiary student as multiple of GNP per capita	$2,462 11	$3,090 12	$2,798 7	$2,710 8

Note: Median values, per student expenditures in constant 1983 dollars.

Source: World Bank

As a consequence of the worsening economic conditions, expenditure per student at all levels had declined: primary education from US$67 in 1970 to US$48 in 1983; secondary from US$362 in 1970 to US$223 in 1983; and higher from US$3,090 in 1975 to $2,710 in 1983. (Table 6). This decline in costs per student has affected the quality of education as schools had less to spend on textbooks, equipment and instructional materials. From the above, it should be emphasized that education in Africa can no longer be planned on the assumption that there will be rapid economic growth and adequate supply of resources. Rather education has to make do with the available resources through a judicious and efficient use of what exists. While education cannot be held responsible for the increasing unemployment in Africa; it cannot remain insensitive to the problem. It must therefore open its doors to all sorts of productive work and stimulate the spirit of initiative and self-reliance.

In this regard, it is incumbent on all member States and particularly their institutions of higher learning to intensify their efforts in the implementation of the Mbabane Programme of Action which was adopted in 1985 in support of measures to mitigate the efforts of the social and economic crisis in Africa1/, and the implementation of the Harare statement on Higher Institutions 2/, . The statement not only calls for the harmonization of our approaches to the search for solutions to problems which alter African development including education; but to establishing mechanisms for working out strategies for formulating common research and teaching programmes; and drawing up common research programmes in support of Africa's priority programme designed to alleviate such pernicious problems as food, famine, disease, drought, desertification etc. There is therefore, urgent need to give greater attention to education, training, research and consultancy services in institutions of higher learning, if Africa is to face herself from dependence on developed countries.

(c) Political considerations

Over the last two decades, African education has been greatly affected by many political factors. The political factors themselves, however, have been subjected to the economic and social forces operating differently in different African countries. Indeed countries which have experienced many years of civil strife, wars, national liberation movements; coup d'état etc. have also experienced falling education standards.

1/ Report of the Second Conference of Vice-Chancellors, Presidents and Rectors of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa, Mbabane (Swaziland) 18-22 February 1985 E/ECA/CM.11/47, Addis Ababa, March 1985, Annex II.

2/ The Harare Statement on the Role of Africa's Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa's Economic Recovery and Development: Third ECA/A All Conference of Vice-Chancellors, Presidents and Rectors of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa, Harare, Zimbabwe, 19-21 January 1987.

Apart from this, many national governments have been concerned with expanding education to as many members of the population as possible not just as a matter of fulfilling their political promises, but also in response to some of the national needs.

Education over the last two decades has been affected by political decisions as regards the share of public expenditure on education, the control mechanism of education (public or private); the effectiveness of national parliaments; and the conflicts resulting from the demands for centralization or decentralization and participation. Education development has also been influenced by political commitments. There are countries like Ethiopia and Tanzania which have pledged to eradicate illiteracy before the end of the eighties. Zambia, Nigeria and many more have declared universal primary education, and others, free education. In all these cases, there has been a strong political commitment, which has acted as a catalyst for the fulfilment of individuals and national needs.

(d) Social and cultural factors

While these interact profoundly with education, they are subject to its influence. At the same time, education also serves to reproduce and perpetuate the social and cultural life of the people.

Over the last decade, the social conditions in Africa have been deteriorating fast. The largest number of least developed countries are in Africa where a number of people live in absolute poverty with average per capital income of less than US$300 a year. Famine and malnutrition continue to plague many African countries and a good proportion of the African population live in mordant fear and despair from hunger, famine and desease. All these have had profound effect on educational quality, the development of knowledge and skills, and on the life of people in general; on educational structures and on the capacity and ability to develop the kind of schools which will minister to national needs.

Technically, the difference between modern schooling and traditional socialization has not been so much a matter of structures and methodologies as of purpose and perceptions of their function held by those who use them. Whereas traditional education is used as an instrument for promoting social stability and community well-being for communicating the values and skills possessed by the adult members of society, and for incorporating an individual into society where he could play a fitting role, education in the 80's is on the other hand, conceived as an instrument for promoting and controlling change, for transmitting new national values and curing economic ills, and for incorporating the young into a rapidly changing society. But in doing this, modern schools have been accused of being harmful to societies they serve because of their bookish curricula that are oriented towards higher levels of education which are beyong the reach of the majority of the pupils; divorced from the realities of African life and culture and unsuited for preparing the young for adult life, and have been very slow in reducing illiteracy.

Nevertheless, schools have become very much an integral and living part of the African societies which they serve. Their distinctive problems derive not from their imported character only, but from Africa's failure to make them more relevant to the socio-economic needs and to root them firmly in the culture of the society in which they exist and to produce an "African School" capable of

preparing the young for both a traditional and modernizing role without divorcing them from the society where they came. As was pointed out at the Third Conference of Vice-Chancellors in Harare, this calls for accelerating the process of reviewing the curricula research emphasis and priorities and learning methods in schools and higher constitutions with a view to bringing them in line with the present needs for recovery and development.

(e) Scientific and technological factors

Many people, both in developed and developing countries look at technology as the new deity with promises of a better tomorrow. However the subject of technology in Africa bristles with all sorts of questions and issues. There are those who argue that Africa should have followed the Japanese example and borrowed from the shelves of technologies in the West. Others have contended that the region should have followed the Chinese model and utilized the scientific skills possessed by nationals and developed labour-intensive technologies in a continent with under-utilized labour.

Whatever the argument, the scale and speed of scientific and technological advance in Africa has been quite remarkable over the last decade. Effective use may not have been made of this scientific knowledge and technology; but this may be the result of Africa's inability to provide in-service and further training for new responsibilities or new careers for the educated people.

A major criticism of African education is that even after two decades of independence, it is still biased towards the arts and social sciences. And even where science and technology are being developed seriously, conventional criticism has it that technologies perfected and developed in the West or East are inappropriate to the factor endowments and production conditions of African countries. It is argued that technological borrowing will keep Africa further dependent on developed countries through lack of indigenous trained and skilled personnel and importation of foreign expertise. The Mbabane Programme of Action puts this very forcefully in perspective by calling upon all African institutions of higher learning to strengthen research efforts in the areas of science and technology, agriculture, industry and manpower development and the overall management of the economies while at same time preserving concerns for developing arts and humanities.

There is no doubt that during the last decade, the development of education has been greatly influenced by science and technology. The curricula, programmes and methods of teaching have benefitted from educational technology and its effects will continue to be felt during the next decade.

(f) Exogenous factors

An important influence on education is being exerted by funding and donor institutions, agencies or organization. A good example in this regard, are the options and structural measures being proposed by the World Bank for the development of African education during the next decade. Basically the policy options state:

(i) that developing countries should recover the public cost of higher education because of its lower social returns compared to the first level; and then allocate the available funds to primary education;

(ii) the explicit deemphasis of investment in higher education and greater emphasis on investment in primary education and that cost recovery system will lead to great social equity;

(iii) that developing countries should develop a credit market for education together with selective scholarships especially in higher education;

(iv) the compartmentalization of the education system into the three levels together with great emphasis on decentralized management of public education and encourage the expansion of private and community supported institutions;

These policy proposals coming from a very influential financing institutions spell far reaching consequences for the development of African education. Already reactions to these proposals have lead to unrest, concern and closures of some institutions in countries like, Ghana, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Zambia and Kenya, to name but a few.

On various fora, African ministers of education, planning and finance argued that if educational policies were to be formulated from the Bank's position of deemphasing investment in higher education, it would lead not only to the collapse of the entire educational system, but also that of national economies. The ministers argued that the productive capacity of primary education is inconceivable without the contribution of higher education and the related extensive services. While there is merit in the observed higher social returns of primary education, no African country can expect to free itself from dependence on developed countries both from the point of finance and expertise, especially technological expertise without the enhanced development of higher education.

In another forum, several universities,Vice-chancellors and heads of African higher institutions severely criticized the proposals put forward by the World Bank. They contended that while developing countries agree with the universalization of education, this should not be done at the expense of higher education. They argued that the question of education should be assessed within a well-defined development context as set in the Lagos Plan of Action; in the Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) and in the United Nations Programme of Action for Africa's Economic Recovery and Development (UNPAERD).

It is important to view the educational process in developing countries within the context of the achieve need to long-term economic and social goals. Unless great emphasis is placed on tertiary education, there will be little or no positive technological and social changes. Certainly, developing countries, in their quest for specialized manpower resources, reduction of external expertise, and the reversal of rural-urban migration, cannot afford to ignore the strategic role played by higher education.

The proposed cost-recovery measures and the removal of education subsidies from the tertiary level would not necessarily lead to greater efficiency and social equity in education.

Because the economic crises and the fall in real incomes, the proposed privatization of educational systems in Africa could very well slow down education and cause further inequalities because most parents, let alone the extended family system in Africa, are not in a position to bear the full cost of education, especially at the second and third levels.

IV. Policies, Programmes and Practices for Maximizing Use of Educational Resources

Since 1981, ECA has undertaken studies on maximizing resources utilization in African institutions of higher learning. Broadly, these studies:

(i) analysed and reviewed the constraints in the development and utilization of human resources;

(ii) reviewed the existing resources utilization in higher education so as to explore the possibility of increasing intake within the existing facilities without injecting heavy financial inputs.

(iii) assessed the possibilities for planned development; increased utilization through linkage of education with productive activities; and self supporting and income generating approach to education.

(i) Constraints in the development and utilization of Educational Resources

Education and training is an expensive undertaking which usually claims more than 4.5 per cent of National GDP of African states. In spite of education and training being expensive, the demand for increased accessbility to educational and training opportunities continues to increase every year. African governments are being made to do with the existing physical facilities, staff and financial resources to meet the increasing demand for higher education, specialized training and for more problem oriented research. The increase in demand for educational opportunities, has brought with it new problems such as that of outputs without the relevant knowledge and skills for national development.

Financial capital and recurrent expenditure inputs have become increasingly difficult and continue to be a major constraint. As a result, institutions of higher learning have been engaged in ways and means of utilizing their existing facilities, classrooms, lecture theatres, halls of residence, cafeterias, etc. and staff to meet the social demand for education. At the same time, institutions of higher learning are involved in finding ways and means of generating revenue for themselves. And most important has been the concern of such institutions to link their research and consultancy activities with the industrial world and centres of socio-economic activities. To do this requires a fresh thrust in the development of education and particularly at institutions of higher learning.

In this regard a few observations may be made relative to resource utilization particularly in higher institutions:

(a) that educational personnel or resources available in our society are not being fully utilized because of relying too much on one single resource - the teacher/instructor/lecturer to facilitate the acquisition of knwledge, skills and values. There is a general failure of combining the services of a conventionally trained teacher with those of other resources and agents of change in the society.

(b) the rising costs of building, equipment and instructional materials continue to impose serious burden on national governments thereby putting a question on conventional approaches to the provision of education. A question may be asked as to whether the conventional three terms or two semesters a year are wanted in Africa today. Can the long vacation period be made use of so as to shorten on the period one takes to complete a degree/course. Perhaps the summer school ought to be institutionalized in most African countries.

(c) A third aspect is the issue of utilizing local resources - human and material. To what extent can African countries rely upon local resources in the development of education itself e.g. the production of textbooks cheaply and save countries on foreign exchange; on building materials and the production of spare parts badly needed in many African countries for national development;

(d) Given that institutions at whatever level are established for the service of society, is it not possible for universities and other higher education institutions to organize their educational activities for both the youth and adults around or closely associated with the centre of socio-economic activities such as a factory, a farm, a shop, clinic or whatever industry is near so that colleges/institutions can become partially self-financing in linking their educational activities to such centres of socio-economic activities;

(e) a final issue relates to the question of reduction of external resources being used in African institutions - human and material. Africa is still heavily supported by external resources - finance and staff. Even the very industry one would like to link African institutions which may be heavily run and financed on multinational/transnational basis. The research one wants to conduct in an institution in collaboration with industry or centres of socio-economic activities may be to the benefit of foreign countries and companies. How are we to ensure that expatriate staff are not conducting research in collaboration with industry as spying devices for the benefit of western countries.

In addition to the forecoming issues, the following ought to be considered and taken into account:

(i) the need for urgent review of the curricula, course offerings and research emphasis to ensure that they are in tune with the urgency of the crisis and the demands of self-reliant and self-sustaining development in Africa and for training skilled manpower urgently needed for development and transformation;

(ii) the urgency to increase the contribution of higher institutions to the effectiveness of the entire educational system including the strengthening of extension studies, distance teaching and continuing education programmes and taking measures to rationalize and maximize the use of educational resources (human, financial and material) at all levels of the system;

(iii) the need to strengthen staff development programmes as a basis for improving the quality and effectiveness of teaching, learning, research and consultancy services so as to reduce dependence of developed countries.

(iv) the urgency to explore the most efficient ways of sharing the limited resources available in Africa by making use of existing facilities particularly in areas of critical need on a regional and subregional basis; and

(v) the need to support co-operation arrangements on a sub-regional and regional basis in curriculum development, textbook and instructional materials development; research and consultancy.

These questions of resources utilization and allocation to education and how best such resources should be utilized continue to bedevil African States. The continent's problem in educational development is the lack of knowledge of what kind of educational actions would be effective in educational development and what strategies should be adopted to make them more effective. In this regard, therefore, there is need for innovative approaches to the development of education. More so if students/outputs of the system are to come out with relevant knowledge, skills attitudes and values. Thus the strategies being proposed hereunder reflect the concern and the direction one would like to see African education take.

What is being implied here is that Africa is capable of providing an education which is not only cost-effective, but an education that would give its society increased inventiveness and innovation; an education that would bring about a union or marriage between work and study and would combine knowledge with practice and production. In this way, the outputs of educational systems would be available for production services without too much recourse to pre-service training. To do this would require that our institutions of higher learning do not continue to be modelled on the linear expansion of colonial times but that there is a will (both political and moral) a determination and commitment to delve into our past and use it as a spring board for innovative actions for future developments.

It is necessary to do this because may African countries have a number of qualified candidates for higher education who are often denied access to institutions of higher learning because of the lack of instructional/ residential facilities, the limited resources available for educational development, and the inability of African states to relate education to the demands of industry and other socio-economic activities.

(ii) Strategies for innovative forms of educational development:

out of the findings of the studies conducted by ECA between 1981 and 1986, it sis being suggested that in order for the African region to deal with the problems of the social and economic crisis; the demand for education by both primary and secondary learners wishing to have second chance education; to develop the necessary manpower for national development; and to ensure that existing resources (human, financial and material) are fully utilized, African countries will need to:

(a) develop new areas of activities for institutions of higher learning;

(b) seriously examine the rate of utilization of facilities in institutions of higher learning and propose measures for their optimal utilization. The studies undertaken, revealed that there is underutilization of facilities in institutions of higher learning;

(c) appraise the role of higher institutions as lead agents of appropriate technology and of national development; and

(d) linking education programmes to manpower and development needs.

(a) New Areas of Activities for Institutions of Higher learning

Most African universities are built around the traditional faculty/department of arts, social science, or humanities; natural or applied science. There are fewer departments, faculties or institutes of agricultural engineering, crop production, animal husbandry, forestry, agro-forest industries etc. in a continent which is basically agricultural and has vast forests. Indeed few African universities have well developed and staffed departments/faculties of forestry; agro-forest industries; mineral and natural resources, mining, food and agricultural technology; traditional medicine; rural development music and drama; arts; and crafts; ceramics and pottery; rural technology etc. They continue to function on Western models.

The traditional role of the university has not been seriously reviewed nor is it any longer applicable. Certainly, African universities should now be able to play the role of a reconnaissance institution for trade agreements, trade negotiations, technical aid and assistance, debt servicing, development of the economy and in international affairs. In fact, they should provide the lead in consultancy services, development and transfer of technology; in the solution of Africa's social and economic crisis; in the exploration and exploitation of natural and mineral resources; in rural development; in the development of educational technology and educational materials. Faculties in these areas should be seen mushrooming across the continent. There is enough evidence to show that there are a number of Africans adequately qualified in these fields but working in developed countries. The problem, therefore, is how to get them back to Africa and keep them in the continent.

(b) Resource utilization in Institutions of Higher Learning

The declining death rates combined with the high fertility rates have resulted into accelerated growth of school going population, an increase of which when seen against the unfavourable economic situation in Africa and the lack of commensurable increase in learning facilities has generated increased pressure on education facilities. Indeed the clearance for increased educational provision has soared phenomenally every year over the past two decades. This pressure has been felt appreciably at every entry point of the educational system, particularly at the post-primary point of entry; and most critically at the entry into institutions of higher learning.

Many more candidates qualify for higher level education than can be admitted and are therefore denied access to such institutions of higher learning due to:

(1) lack of instructional and residential facilities;

(2) limited financial allocations for higher education coupled with the government's inability to accommodate the increases in overall education budget, and

(3) inability of African states to relate the increased intakes to man-power demand and requirements and to the development of socio-economic activities.

Despite these constraints, the studies undertaken during the last few years have revealed that in the course of the 365 days in the year, there are many hours/days or even months when both the residential and instructional facilities are not maximally utilized, if not idle. At the same time, there are many faculty members who are not engaged in significant research or teaching activities in spite of the claim often heard that staff members are over-loaded with teaching. Evidence from the studies clearly shows that in a number of higher institutions, academic staff have a minimum teaching load as specified by the university statutes, and only some faculties have heavier teaching loads.

Therefore, the denial of educational opportunities for so many hopefuls not only perpetuates the elitist type of education but is also a waste of considerable human resource potential needed for Africa development.

There is no doubt, however, that most institutions of higher learning are expensive investments not only in terms of per unit cost, but also in their outputs for being ill-equipped with the right knowledge and skills for gainful employment. This has often made employers ill at ease and has led to the rejection of graduates for lack of relevant knowledge, skills and right attitudes as well as lack of exposure to the pragmatic demands of production and the world of work. In other words, African universities do not adequately prepare their outputs for effective economic activities or self-employment.

On the basis of the foregoing and as away of solving the increased demand for higher education, proposals have been made for:

(1) increasing the intakes of universities through re-arranging the pattern of the academic year and having two intakes a year with each intake completing its academic work for the year in six months. This should be linked with the adoption of a work-study programmes so that those who have completed six months of studies should be sent to work in the sectors of the economy relevant to their field of study while others are in residence for academic studies; and

(2) instituting research fellowships for academic staff on the basis of either four or five years of teaching followed by a year of research free from teaching.

However, it must be emphasized that if the outputs of present institutions continue to be economically unwanted the case for increasing intates and thereby output, would be very weak. Certainly intakes should not be increased simply as a matter of easing the pressure of the popular demand for higher education. Such increases should be made in relation to:

(1) the manpower supply and demand in selected priority sectors of the economy according to the Lagos Plan of Action; and

(2) the field of study and faculties amenable for both the learning and work exposure.

What is being advocated here is that while seeking to increase intakes for maximizing the use of residential and instructional facilities, this should be related to manpower demand and supply situation of a given country. This should also be linked to the economic activities of a country thereby integrating theory with practice and learning with work experience.

In order to establish the integration of theory and practice with learning and exposure to the world of work, it would be useful to allow students to be in residence for six months and thereafter be attached and exposed to the world of work for six months which another group of students is in residence. This would also allow for interweaving instruction and work and linking them with distance teaching methods by radio or television. Central to this proposal is that within 52 weeks in a year it is possible to have two groups of students complete their academic studies each in 24 weeks having 4 weeks of vacation between them. Such an operation would undoubtedly require a small staff increase and some small financial increases. But this would be favourably counter-balanced by reduced unit costs and an output of students who are more readily employable and acceptable to the world of work.

Continuity of instruction and contact with institutions for students while on industrial/practical experience would be fostered through distance teaching methods or through the organization of seminars/workshops either once a month where students on practical attachment would be required to attend. It may also be necessary for students who are off campus to write one or two assignments during their work exposure period plus an end of assignment report. All of these should be assessed and their grades be part of the overall assessment of a student performance in the university.

(c) Universities as lead agents of rural and appropriate technology

Appropriate technology here refers to the technology which will raise the productivity and incomes of the people in rural areas, generate productive employment, make full use of local resources, and produce the type of goods and services needed to meet the minimum needs of the people. In this regard, universities should provide the lead in the development of national capability in the selection, generation and diffuse of appropriate and rural technologies with external inputs to these processes playing a supportive or catalytic role. Universities need to re-organize their resources, (human, financial and material) to cater for the development of such appropriate and rural technologies.

In this regard, they ought to be asking themselves such questions as:

(1) does national capability and capacity for the generation and dissemination of rural and appropriate technologies, specialized training and education exist in African countries?

(2) upon what factors does this capability depend?

(3) what steps can universities take to generate and/or strengthen this capability?

(4) Are universities in Africa doing anything to adapt large scale technologies to suit the requirements of developing countries; or are they doing anything to develop small scale employment generating technologies?

These questions strike at the heart of human resources development and utilization in the universities i.e. at the heart of current research pre-occupation. There is need for a shift in this direction and this calls for fundamental changes in university research practices and the policies relating to higher education.

(d) Linking Education to manpower and development needs

There is ample evidence in many African countries to show the imbalance between supply and demand causes by weaknesses in education and training and human resource development system. Education continues to follow the traditional pattern of preparing individuals for white-collar employment rather than have job-related training or giving more emphasis on productive education. Education and training institutions function in relative isolation from the actual problems and the needs of the public and private sectors. They are not effectively responding to national socio-economic problems.

What is a central issue to-day, is that there is an apparent surplus of generalists i.e. outputs from second level and third level institutions lacking in practical knowledge and skills and a serious shortage of technicians, industrial cadres, managers, doctors, engineers, technologists, agronomists, scientists and other specialized manpower. These disparities will persist unless there is serious action taken to link education and trainint to national manpower requirements. Therefore in linking education and training programmes to manpower and development needs, the following actions will be necessary:

(1) manpower planning must go beyond pure quantitative forecasts for the planning of formal and non-formal education and should be related to a broad strategy of human resources development;

(2) the importance of developing middle-level technical manpower should be re-emphasized because a good corps of middle level technical manpower is the backbone of a buoyant economy. In effect, technical support is needed for the efficient operation of the top level professional personnel;

(3) the need to formalize links between the various levels of technical education and vocational training in the interest of facilitating the production of technical personnel and also encouraging universities and other higher institutions to create second chance opportunities for technical personnel who would like to improve on their professional qualifications; and

(4) the need for curriculum planning and development at all levels of the educational and training systems to take into account the changing needs of industry, the economy and the world of work at large. In effect, therefore, the issue is one of reorienting curricula to national manpower requirements.

V. Current Educational policies, Programmes and Practices in Educational Resources Investment

Knowledge, skills, attitudes and values acquired through education and training are considered as the yeast in the loaf of political unity, the cure for social and economic ills; the elixir for determinating socio-economic conditions; the pill that would reduce Africa's dependence on developed countries; and the magic word which would turn developing Africa into a technological world. Yet there is ample evidence to show that current education systems and their curricula are failing to equip people with the right skills knowledge, values and attitudes needed in a world of change; that educational structures and formal education content ill-equip their products, thereby leaving behind a flotsam of disappointed and disillusioned young people seeking employment opportunities which do not exist; and that even if more schools were built, it is becoming increasingly difficult to do so, in the face of fast population growth and limited financial and material resources.

Perhaps it is better to remind ourselves that investment in education is not just for economic reasons. It goes beyond the social and economic reasons to the utilitarian aspects of education. It is for this reason that investing in educational resources development cannot be conceived as taking place at certain ages, stages, times and places when economic and social returns may be considered as most favourable, but that it must be seen as the unfinished business which is always there to be attended to. Decisions to invest in educational resources cannot be purely based on economic grounds. They can be social, political or otherwise. But whatever the reasons for investing in education, it usually turns out as a response to meeting some learning needs so that people can participate effectively in national development. These basic learning needs are:

- positive attitudes toward co-operation with one's family and fellow citizens; the community and national development, and the development of ethical values;
- functional literacy and numeracy so that an individual can engage in every day life and activities;
- a scientific outlook and an understanding of the process of nature in areas such as health, nutrition, food storage, sanitation, etc.
- functional knowledge and skills for engaging in national development, and in the production of goods and services for a meaningful life; for earning a living; and for engaging in a variety of local, technical and technological skills;
- Knowledge and skills for civic participation in local and national affairs, political and civic duties.

Current educational policies and practices have, in as far as possible, tried to comply with overall national objectives by deducing educational objectives from aims and objectives approved in overall national, political policy and those adopted in other sectors of national activity. As a consequence many member states have realized their educational strategies and modified their investment strategy from quantitative to qualitative; from dependence to self-reliance; from imitation and reproduction to search for innovation and from centralised and uniform procedures to diverse alternatives in education.

As a result, investment in education has been two-dimensional:

- the focus has been on internal reforms and the continued improvement of existing educational systems in respect of curricula, instructional methods, techniques and practices, instructional materials and equipment; training and retraining of teachers, reduction of wastage and dropouts; and mission procedures, examinations and accreditation;
- the search for innovative forms of education and alternative approaches to educational development such as intensified use of mass media and distance teaching techniques; emphasis on productive activities in education and on linking education with the world of work.

Central to the issue of investing in human beings is the fact that knowledge, skills and attitudes are important factor inputs in the national development process. The major problem however, is to identify the knowledte and skills needed for national development, and to formulate policies and programmes which will ensure the efficient development of such knowledge and skills. Often while the identification of knowledge and skills required may be done very well, the policies and programmes formulated for their development, tend to be counter-productive either because of national or international influences or factors. Financing and lending institutions have been able to influence and sometimes have imposed counter-productive policy measures regarding the development of education in Africa. At present whereas many African countries would like to put more financial resources in the development of higher education to ensure the production of relevant and critical skills needed for national development, influential financing institutions like the World Bank contend that such investment should be in the primary education sector which has the highest social returns and that there should be no education subsidies for those in institutions of higher learning.

Africa needs to spend more on higher education which holds the key to national development. What is needed is to have men and women with administrative and management skills; technical and technological skills, scientific knowledge for increased agricultural productivity, food storage and processing and for the exploration and exploitation of national resources. To develop these skills, knowledge and attitudes for a productive life calls for the non-compartmentalization of education into the three levels of the educational system. Rather education should be seen as a system whose various components ought to be developed together with due emphasis on those sectors of urgent need for national development.

Policies and programmes ought to be formulated and developed in such a way that effective use is made of existing resources. In this regard, therefore, member states should be assisted in sealing off the many sources through which they lose not only their financial resources, but the importation at high cost in foreign exchange of external expertise, consultants textbooks and equipment; and put a stop to the brain drain which continues to deprive Africa of the little human resources developed either locally or externally.

VI. Conclusion

This report has tried to show the development of education over the last two decades; the factors both internal and external which have affected and continue to influence the development of education; how resources especially in institutions of higher learning can be utilized effectively; and that investment in human resources calls not only for well articulated policies but for the effective planning of education.

We would, therefore, like to conclude that while there has been remarkable growth in enrolment, instructional facilities and in the provision of human, financial and material resources, there has not been an attendant increase in the quality of education, in skills mix and the products of the educational system.

Rather Africa after two solid decades of expansionary education is still very much short of all types of skills from administrative and management skills to scientific and technological skills. No wonder that in spite of the professed progress in education the Africa region is still a major importer of foreign expertise, consultants, scientists, doctors, technologists and worst still, lecturers and teachers.

This trend is likely to continue if international and external pressures being put forward as policy options for Africa are adopted by member States. For instance, the argument by some funding agencies to emphasize the development of primary education, because of its high social returns, at the expense of higher education runs contrary to Africa's declared priority as set in the Lagos Plan of Action, in APPER and in UNPAERD. Africa needs to invest more in higher education to ensure not only the development of adequate skills and knowledge but the qualitative improvement of the products of higher education. In other words, in their quest for specialized manpower resources, (such as engineers, technologists, agronomists, hydrologists, scientists, etc.) for the reduction of external expertise, the reversal or rural-urban migration etc., African countries should reinforce the role of higher institutions by allocating more financial resources into higher education for research, curriculum development, for instructional facilities, textbooks, equipment for library provisions and staff development.

Certainly the removal of educational subsidies, especially from higher education, will not improve the management of education. Rather it will slow down the development of education. Nor can the substitution of subsidies with loans and selective scholarships provide better and more efficient services to education. The administrative and management of loan schemes and a credit system market for higher education is likely to prove to be more expensive than the subsidies they intend to replace.

In view of the foregoing, we would like to emphasize that the development of education at all levels should be viewed as an organic whole rather than a process where separate entities develop exclusively of each other. Each of the levels need the other for its own sustenance. If African countries are to benefit from investing in education, they need to:

(a) strengthen the development of sound educational policies for the enhancement of human resources development and utilization;

(b) develop appropriate curricula with a heavier bias towards science, technical, technological, agricultural, crafts/artisanal and socio-cultural courses;

(c) develop within the realities and conditions of each African country work-oriented and productive activities in education; industry-based and problem-oriented research and appropriate technology for national development.

(d) develop national, sub-regional and regional capability for self-reliance and self-sufficiency in education and training, staff development, curricula reforms, consultancy services, research, finance, textbook production, equipment and instructional materials;

(e) strengthen the capabilities particularly those of higher institutions to be more income-generating in their activities so as to be self-or semi-self financing through problem-oriented research, consultancy services and industrial attachment and the production of goods and services;

(f) institute measures which would seal off the many sources through which financial resources are lost and which render the continent to a high rate of brain drain;

(g) give greater attention to education, training, research, and consultancy services in debt and economic management so as to solve Africa's economic crisis; and

(h) Harmonize approaches to the search for solutions to Africa's problems, and in defining priorities in education, training and research and the development of projects and programmes at both regional and subregional levels. A mechanism would therefore have to be worked out for evalving such common approaches and strategies for the collaboration, co-operation and co-ordination of sub-regional or regional research and training programmes. In fact there is urgent need for pooling together the little available resources to enhance Africa's capability in research, training and consultancy services.

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NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT

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I. Introduction

In Africa where there is a high rate of population growth the greatest challenge is how to unleash the creative energies of the population; raise the awareness of the potential of the collective efforts of the people; and help the population to organize themselves for self-reliance self-fulfilment and for creativity. It is therefore the primary concern of many governments to provide the entire population with the opportunities for developing the necessary skills, knowledge and re-orienting their attitudes and ethical values to meet their basic needs. This task of providing the opportunities for knowledge and skills development, and attitudes shaping is left principally in the hands of the education sector made up of three types of education: formal, non-formal and informal education. Literature is replete with definitions of these types of education and it is not the purpose of this paper to enter into a distinction of the three types of education.

However what ought to be emphasized is that as an institution education is acted upon by a number of factors operating in a society. What education is, and what it does, is not determined by the teachers, educators or educationists but by many other participants in the educative process viz: individuals themselvles, pupils, parents; pressure groups, politicians, planners; economists, society, environment, the community etc. In this way, formal education is to be distinguished from non-formal education in terms of its outward characteristics rather than the basic function.

II. Functions of Non-Formal Education (N.F.E.)

In examining non-formal education programmes in African development, it may be necessary from these introductory remarks to review the functions of education from both the general point of view and from the traditional and modern views of education and see how these functions relate to non-formal education. Generally, education should reflect the society it serves and convey to the rising generations the accumulated values and mission of that society. This is the socializing function of modern education which is not different from that of the traditional pattern of informal education. In the eighties this is regarded as the conservative function of education. It does not therefore meet the aspirations and enthusiasm of many nations.

Secondly, education serves as an instrument for purposively initiating, controlling and directing change in society. Many nations have used education as the main lever for bringing about change and perhaps this is so because through education, people are able to apply knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and information learnt or aquired more productively. In this way,

the application of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to productive activities is central to development. This is the innovative function of education. Thirdly, education has a liberative function which is concerned with freeing individuals from their cultural and intellectual blinkers, enabling them to think divergently, logically and independently; to identify and solve problems; to take responsibility for initiating change without unnecessary limitations on self development.

These three functions of education underscore the point that non-formal education is essentially a complement and supplement to formal education and also to the patterns of informal education in the home and the community. It is not intended to replace formal or traditional education even if some of the functions of the three types of education are similar. Traditional education for instance has been used as an instrument for:

- promoting social stability and continuity of society;
- communicating to the youth the values, skills, knowledge and attitudes possessed by the adult members of a culture and society; and
- being used as a means of incorporating an individual into a society possessing a common consensus of beliefs and preparing him for roles assigned to him by society.

Through the process of learning by living and doing, traditional education helped to equip the young with communal responsibilities, with knowledge skills and values for productive use and for socialization. Both the family and the community played an important role in the educative process just as much as they do in modern education. Indded the functions of modern education are not too different from those of traditional education, in that the former serves as:

- an instrument for promoting and controlling change;
- a means of transmitting new national values and new economic and productive skills and knowledge not necessarily possessed by adults through traditional education;
- a means of incorporating the young into a rapidly changing national society with pluralistic patterns of belief; and being able to find for themselves and contend with social changes. In other words, it helps to prepare the young for a productive life and self-reliance and self-fulfilment.

These functions of both traditional and modern education do apply with varying degrees to non-formal education. The

question therefore is how far and how effective have non-formal education programmes been in preparing the youth and adults for effective roles in the above functions. this report therefore, will examine some of the policies and practices relative to the development of non-formal education; the relationship between non-formal education and development; the participants in non-formal education programmes for national development; review the non-formal education programmes in African countries geared to national development; and examine prospects for the future.

III. National Education Policies and Aims of Non-Formal Education

The development of non-formal education programmes is based on defined national education policies and on defined aims and objectives of non-formal education (NFE). Indeed no NFE programme is complete without taking into account the overall national education policies which in many African countries may be enumerated as follows:

- the attainment of universal basic education for the majority of the population to ensure that each personal develops the necessary competencies for person growth and self-fulfilment either through formal or non-formal education,

- equip the majority of the population with the necessary occupational, technical and managerial skills, knowledge and attitudes for effective participation in national development;

- pay greater attention to education which generates scientific thinking, problem solving, technical skills and attitudes; and applying knowledge and skills to productive activities;

-encourage programmes and activities which foster cultural values and right attitudes to work in rural and urban areas;

-provide for educational opportunities to all shades of society through both formal and non-formal education programmes in literacy, numeracy, basic knowledge and skills in agriculture, health, nutrition, food, community work, business, social services, farming, entrepreneurship, arts and crafts, artisanal trades etc.; and

- promote co-operation, collaboration and co-ordination of educational programmes and activities amongst various parties, agencies and organizations involved in the education sector.

The development of non-formal education will be greatly affected by the overall national education policies and the aims of education in general. Thus some of the aims of non-formal education pursued in African countries have been as follows:

- to provide training needs in literacy, numeracy, skills and attitudes which will enhance self-reliance, self-development and self-fulfilment;

- to provide instruction and materials related to productive activities and income generation and to improve the technical, vocational, administrative and managerial performance of those in salaries or self employment;

- to encourage and promote programmes which enhance the development of national, cultural and societal activities so as to reinforce and enrich socio-economic life; and

- to foster a linkage between formal and non-formal education so that the two systems complement and supplement each other in the development of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

Arising out of the foregoing policies and aims, it should be emphasized that a programme of non-formal education is decisive element in the strategy of human resources development, particularly in areas where deficiencies exist in other areas of education. Indeed, if the overall planning of education is not done properly, such a deficiency situation may lead to a kind of unbalanced growth where on the one hand there is a surplus of secondary school leavers and a pool of university graduates; and on the other, serious shortages of skilled and trained manpower technicians and specialists. Often education which is badly planned leads to the production of unemployable school leavers and of little use for national development.

Thus the role of non-formal education in this process is obvious. It is supposed to take on the unfinished business of the school by giving some technical and vocational skills so that young men and women can participate more effectively in their country's development. Many programmes therefore in non-formal education are designed to prepare their clients for national participation and development by equipping them with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes. In this regard, the planning of non-formal education calls for the development of three components of education viz: communication skills; life skills and income generating skills, although this can be done by means of three different modes of delivery i.e. formal, non-formal or informal learning. This is usually done in varying degree of mix and at varying depth depending on the delivery mode and its clients.

Already much criticism has been labelled against formal education for failing to equip its products with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes and for making negative contribution to development. On the other hand, non-formal

education is thought of as being more responsive, tailor-made and relevant to the needs of developing societies in rural areas. It focuses on teaching people to improve their basic level of subsistence and their standards of health and nutrition. In this regard, it is more immediately productive and application - oriented because learners acquire knowledge and skills for thier immediate use, thereby avoiding, the long gestation period which often exists between formal education and productive employment.

It is important therefore that, in the implementation of national education policies emphasis should be placed on the integration of all forms of education and the delivery modes into a more comprehensive and unified view of learning which recognizes the linkage relationship of learning with human action and aspiration. Such integration raises the individuals consumption, and influences his/her learning ability thereby stimulating his/her desire to acuqire more knowledge. And for society, integration raises its ability to provide for more services and raises the demand for more complex skills necessary beyond individual needs. The linkage relationship of this situation is illustrated in Diagram 1 and the operational steps in the delivery of such education are illustrated in Diagram 2.

At this point, however, it is necessary to examine the various clients of non-formal education and how they relate to national development

IV. The Clientele and Conceptual Framework of Non-Formal Education Programmes

In the foregoing pages it has been emphasized that neither formal nor non-formal education can on their own meet the learning needs of individuals in society nor these needs for national development. Complementarity of the sectors of education is therefore essential. Given the policies, aims and objectives stated above, for whom should non-formal education programmes be designed to ensure responsiveness to national needs?

In response to this question, it is emphasized that non-formal education programmes should cater for the following:

1. youths and adults in economically depressed areas and the national pockets of poverty;

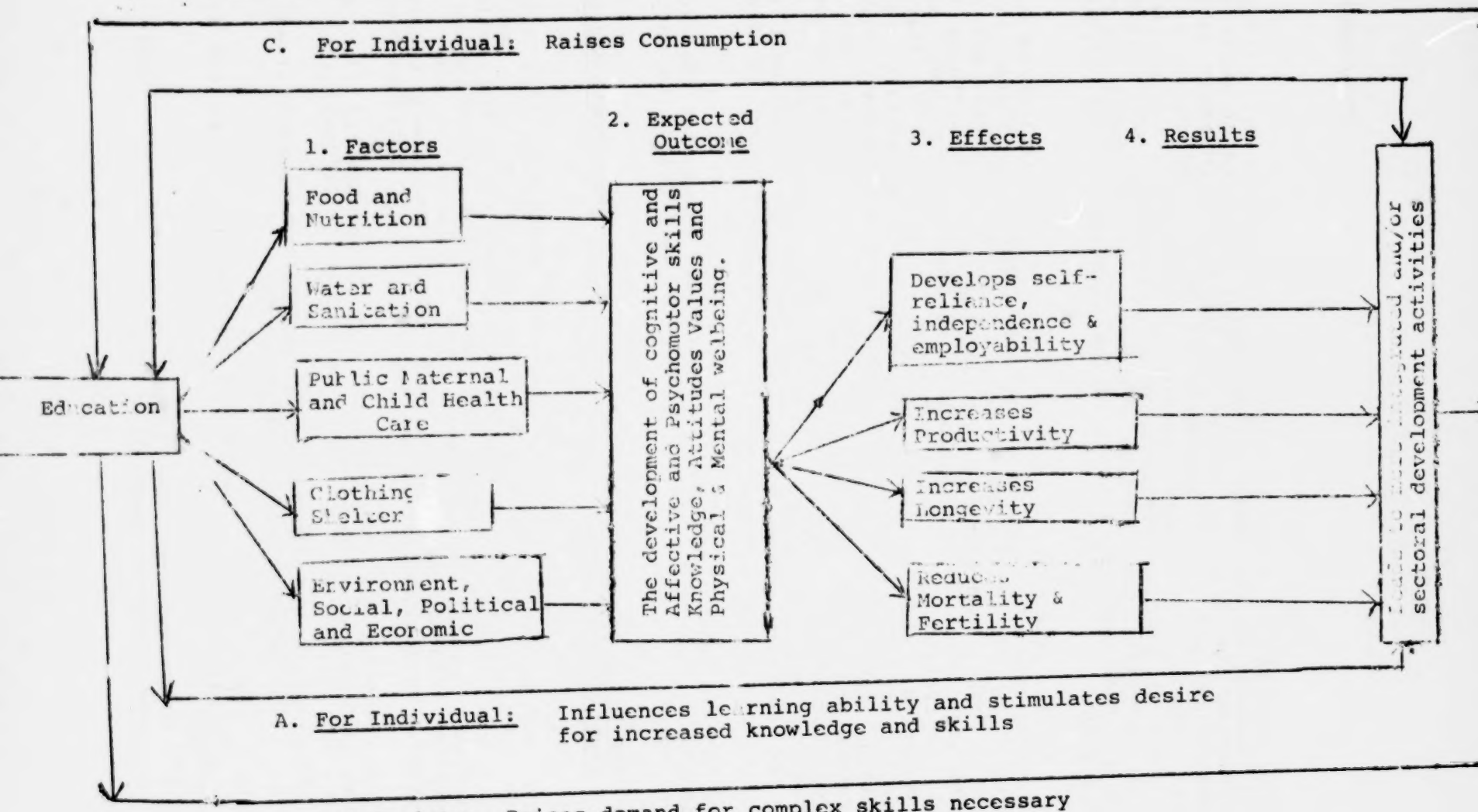
2. illiterates - youths and adults from urban and rural areas;

3. drop-outs from the formal system who left school for one reason or another;

Diagram 1 : Linkage of Education with Basic Needs and Development

D. For Society: Raises ability to provide more services

C. For Individual: Raises Consumption



A. For Individual: Influences learning ability and stimulates desire for increased knowledge and skills

B. For Society: Raises demand for complex skills necessary beyond individual needs.

Components of Education	Major Instrument to Satisfy Need	Delivery Mode	Target Group	Nature of Educational Action (illustrative)
1. Communication Skills	A. Primary Education B. Adult Education C. Literacy Programmes	I. Formal II. Non-Formal	1. School-Age Children 2. Out of School Youths & Adults	A. Build schools; train and provide teachers; provide instructional materials, equipment and tools B. Use schools; build centres; initiate mass campaigns and develop literacy programmes
2. Life Skills	D. Primary & Junior Sec. Education E. Extension studies Adult Educ.	III. Formal IV. Non-Formal V. Informal	3. School-Age Children 4. Out-of School Youths & Adults	C. Build vocationalized schools; develop organized extension activities; improve media & its use; Support cultural activities, youth and women's programmes
3. Production Skills	F. Vocationalized and technical and Trade schools G. Formal & Informal Training	VI. Formal VII. Non-Formal VIII. Informal IX. Technical X. Vocational	5. Youths 6. Adults	D. Build vocational, technical and trade schools; Develop training centres and link them with centres of economic activities so as encourage self-employment; develop institutions for income generating activities; and include productive activities in education programmes
4. Higher Skills Needed by Society for meeting basic needs and national needs	H. Technical and Specialized Training	XI. Formal Training XII. Non-Formal Training	7. Youths 8. Adults	E. Expand teacher training/technics vocational institutions; develop para-professional cadre of Instructors; create polytechnics and village-level workers, brigades, youth clubs & workers, societies for youths and women, co-operatives and farmers clubs

4. left-outs/overs who cannot be accommodated by the formal system for lack of educational opportunities;

5. people at work or out of work who want to have a second chance education to improve on their educational achievement;

6. school leavers who are without technical skills or vocational orientation, or lacking knowledge, skills and attitudes for productive life in society

7. Specific groups of youths and adults from both rural and urban areas such as:

   (a) traditional craftsmen/artisans including vendors, builders, carpenters, entrepreneurs, cobblers, bricklayers etc.

   (b) traditional healers, medicine men, midwives, magicians,

   (c) youth and women's clubs and other interested groups,

   (d) peasant farmers, small-businessmen, hawkers, illiterate workers etc.

8. all those who need education for one reason or another such as retirees, the disabled, handicapped, deliquents, prisoners etc.

This clientelle cuts accross the whole spectrum of society. the problems the clients face are varied and many. In spite of the diversity and multiplicity of the problems, certain factors ought to be taken into account before designing programmes for all this clientelle. First and foremost therefore, it is important to:

(a) identify the needs of clients and thus come up with an occupational classification of needs; and categorize the clients according to their common learning needs so that a programme tailored to the clients' needs can be developed;

(b) identify existing resources, including available local lendership, common medium of communication, and the local agencies willing to help in non-formal education programmes;

(c) motivate and convince the clients to internalize the worthiness of the envisaged programmes of non-formal education.

When identification has been undertaken, a decision has then to be taken as to what programme would best respond to the needs so identified. A programme for non-formal education clientelle cannot be the same for every country; not even in one country should it be the same for all people irrespective of geographical distribution. The programming will differ from one region to another. Thus the next section examines non-formal education programmes in African development.

V. Non-Formal Education Programme in the Context of African Development

It should be emphasized right from the start that non-formal education is a developmental process and therefore a political one which must interact with other elements in the social, political, economic and educational change. This recognition brings into focus the relationship between education and development and man as the centre of it all. As it was once pointed out: "development has a purpose; that purpose is liberation of man. We talk a good deal about development - about expanding the number of goods and services and the capacity to produce them. But goods are needed to serve men; services are required to make the lives of men more easeful as well as more fruitful. Political, social and economic organization is needed to enlarge the freedom and dignity of men. Always we come back to MAN - "the liberated man", as the purpose of activity, the purpose of development.[1/]

In this regard, development is concerned with satisfying basic human needs of individuals in society and that non-formal education can rise to these basic needs challenges and in so doing, it can contribute to the social, economic and political development of a country. this approach tends to highlight the following definition of development viz: "that development is the unfolding process or act of advancing the components of an object or of a nation through the successive stages within a conflicting environment. In the case of a nation, the process, which is usually referred to as national development, must take place simultaneously within the political, economic and social fabrics of the society. In other words, the process must incrementally bring to an advance stage the political, economic and social structures, within the context of the people's needs and values.[2/]

Development looked at in this way requires:

1/ ECA Education Training Manual No. 2 on Non Formal Education for Integrated Rural Development; ECA/PAMM/HRP/86/WP/1 March 1986 P.15

2/ ECA: Education Training Manual No. 2 Opt. cited P.17

(i) designing and pursuing measures which would efficiently generate and distribute to the people needed goods and services;

(ii) maximizing the utilization of the nations human and other resources; and

(iii) instituting legislation and institutional framework for ensuring active and full participation of the people in the process.

From the foregoing, we find that non-formal education is being considered in relation to development because it is more responsive, tailor-made and relevant to the needs of the communities in both rural and urban areas. Also because it focuses on teaching people to improve their basic level of subsistence and their general conditions of learning. Learners acquire knowledge and skills for their immediate use thereby avoiding long gestation period which often exists between formal education and productive employment.

Given this analysis, we may then ask what kind of non-formal education programmes have helped or do foster African development; or are responsive to meeting basic and national needs.

Over the last two decades, non-formal education programmes for development have varied in degree of inensity, focus and orientation. There are those programmes which have concentrated purely on literacy campaigns as was and is the case in Tanzania and Ethiopia. Others on technical and artisanal trades, as is Kenya's village polytechnics, and other non-formal education programmes which have been integrated into formal educatin programmes to ensure that students engage in productive activities as was and is the case in Benin. Examples of all these programmes are analysed here-under.

(1) **Well-Known Non-Formal Education Programmes**

There are many non-formal education programmes which are taking place in African countries for national development. Detailed information on these programmes is not easy to come by. there are, however, well publicized non-formal education programmes such as the Literacy Campaign Programme in Ethiopia and Tanzania; the Ujamaa Settlement Programme in Tanzania; the Village Polytechnics in Kenya; the Malawi Young pioneers Movement; the Botswana Birgades; and the Animation Rurale Programme in Senegal.

(a) **Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign**

Following the launch in 1975 of the National Work Campaign for Development Through Co-operation, a

component of literacy was included in the programme of activities for awakening, sensitizing, activizing and organizing the masses for national development. This inclusion of literacy laid the foundation for the National Literacy Campaign (NLC) launched in 1979.

Some of the general objectives of the NLC were: to emanicipate the masses from illiteracy without hampering their day-to-day activities; to strengthen and up-grade the skills acquired through literacy and lay-down a strong foundation for further education; and to encourage and promote the devlopment prosperity and social motivity of the masses in the context of functional literacy.3/

Central to these objectives was the view that illiteracy retards progress and development, and therefore a lot of natural development dependent on making the majority of the masses literate. After 14 rounds of activities, some 18,209,779 people had been registered out of which 13,770,894 were certified literate. During the same period i.e. by 1986, over 7.948 million people had followed post-literacy programmes. Thus by 1986, the literacy rate for Ethiopia had grown to 62.4% as compared to less than 20% in 1974.

The effect of this increase in literacy on development nas been immense. Many people are now able to do their own computation and calculations of their daily activities and able to apply knowledge learnt to their productive activities.

Non-formal education programmes in Ethiopia have not only been confined to literacy programmes. There are many other programmes catering for farmers, craftsmen, housewives, workers, destitute children, women club members, relief workers, university students, and those engaged in extension studies to improve their educational attainments. The Ethiopian Child and Welfare Association caters for destitute children who are taught a variety of handicrafts to help them make a living

3/ National Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating Committee
The Ethiopian NLC, Its Achievements and Prospects
Addis Ababa, August 1986 P.3.

by selling the products; whereas the Bako Project in Ethiopia caters for farmers, craftsmen, and housewives. Another aspect of non-formal education activities involved the Ethiopian university service when students go to rural areas with the objective of sensitizing the rural populace to the educational and developmental problems. In all these cases, there is a non-formal approach to development.

(b) **Non-Formal Education Programmes in Tanzania**

The United Republicv of Tanzania has been in the forefront in the development and execution of non-formal education. To this effect, two autonomous Institutions were established: the Institute of Education responsible for appropriate curricula for formal education and self-reliance, and the Institute of Adult Education which was to take care of the out-of-school sector. The activities of this latter Institute ranged from research, material development for literacy and adult education programmes; the organization of farmers' and workers' co-operatives, the spread of functional literacy, the improvements of skills for skilled workers, and the training of unskilled workers so that they can become more productive.

Teaching materials developed by the Institute are diversified and tailor-made to meet the needs of various communities in Tanzania. Great emphasis is placed in the development of local environment, on citizenship on political education, on improved farming and agricultural productivity; on health, nutrition and sanitation.

Basically, Tanzania's non-formal education programmes are geared towards inculcating saleable skills and raising the standard of living of the people especially in rural areas. Most of the trades taught include carpentry, building, crafts, electrical engineering, metal work, farming techniques, and how to manage and develop co-operatives. Other skills incoude leadership skills for the management of "Ujamaa" villages, and for project implementation in rural areas such as the work-oriented Literacy Programme; the Co-operative Education Project and the Lushota Integrated Development Project. All these are jeared towards the development of education for self-reliance.

(c) **Cote d'Ivoire Training Centres**

Non-formal education programmes for development in Cote d'Ivoire are concerned with the training and

improvement of the practical skills of persons who may be already, at work such as those people with technical skills and working as maintenance staff or those working as secretaries but requiring advanced secretarial skills so that they can be more productive.

There are programmes for those who may not be in salaried employment. INADES (the African Institute for Social and Economic Development) for instance caters not only for civil servants and managers of parastatal organizations but for farmers and co-operatives as well, particularly those who have to work with local communities. Other programmes focus on the needs of illiterates and new literates and on promoting co-operatives and their agents.

(d) **Senegal's "Animation Rurale"**

In Senegal, one comes across the Animation Rurale project which is aimed at meeting the needs of rural people. Basically its grassroot approach is intended to promote confidence in the populance so that they can make a fruitful living within their setting.

On the other hand, the Rural Training Centres have developed a programme for the youths where they are taught basic skills necessary for them to become animators of rural development to ensure that rural communities have better health, sanitation, food and nutrition; and become more productive as farmers.

(e) **Burkina Faso's Centres for Rural Education**

Children and youth who may have missed formal schooling or dropped out of the formal system are catered for through the centres for Rural Development. These centres provide basic skills in farming, community work and other productive skills. Activities of the centres are financed by the government to ensure that out-of-school children are given opportunities to be productive and self-reliant.

(f) **Kenya Village Polytechnics and Other programmes**

Kenys's non-formal education programmes for development have a two pronged appraoched: those undertaken and developed through the self-help programmes such as the well-known Village Polytechnics and Institutes/Colleges of Technology; and those undertaken through government institutions, voluntary agencies and parastatal organizations.

The Village Polytechnics were designed to give primary school leavers some basic skills in tailoring, farming, carpentry, masonry, motor mechanics, electrical wiring, metal work, home economics and agriculture. With these skills it was hoped that graduates from the Polytechnics would be able to use local resources thereby becoming productive and self-employed and be able to provide goods and services to the local communities. While the original idea and philosophy were good, the Village Polytechnics have become highly institutionalized thereby operating as formal institutions and losing their non-formal education approach. At the same time, the range of subjects offered is rather limited so that they are not able to respond to needs of rural areas. Be it as may the Village Polytechnics are part of Kenya 's well-known philosophy enshrined in the "Harambee (self-help) Project." Indeed many co-operatives in Kenya have been born and nurtured out of harambee projects eg. the construction or builders co-operatives.

Other non-formal education programmes are undertaken by institutions such as the Kenya National Youth Service which focuses its activities on farming activities especially for the rural youths so that they are equipped with basic skills and vocational training for self-fulfilment and income generating activities. Voluntary bodies, parastatals and governmental institutions undertake various activities such as the training programme for girls in home management, nutrition and office routine; the partnership for productivity programme which trains local entrepreneurs in business management and accounting and provides them with credit facilities to start their own businesses.

(g) **Malawi's Young Pioneers and Correspondence Education**

A non-formal approach for meeting the education and training needs for a good portion of the population in Malawi is by correspondence through the Malawi Correspondence College and its Centres and night schools; the Malawi Young Pioneers training and the trade schools and apprenticeship schemes. The young pioneers programmes aim at training the youths of the country in farming, agriculture, food production, arts and crafts and various trades such as carpentry, wood work, metal work, mechanical engineering brick-laying and construction. All this is to ensure that the youths do realize the importance of their contribution to national development and that they become more committed to national development activities.

To ensure that this is properly done, a number of training bases and settlement schemes are established all over the country where the young particularly those who have dropped out school go for training; and upon completion of their training go to settlement schemes to try and become better farmers as producers of tobacco, maize, rice maize or tea.

Trade schools train mature young men to become independent rural craftsmen who can also provide a service to local farmers for the manufacture and repair of their farm implements, houseware; build and repair buildings in rural areas; and construct water wells for rural communities.

The Malawi Correspondence College provides a second chance to youths and adults who want to improve on their educational attainment. It is also an alternative route for many youngsters pursuing secondary education; and for the up-grading of primary teachers qualifications. In fact the many programmes offered by the College are now considered as part of the education development process in the country. They are therefore an essential element in the national development strategy.

(h) **Nigeria's Non-Formal Education Centres**

Nigeria has a number of centres which provide various skills in a variety of fields for school leavers, unemployed youths, small businessmen, housewives, the unemployed adults, entrepreneurs and those who just want to be on their own.

The Ceramic Training Centre, for instance, provides training for unemployed youth in basic skills so that after a year's training the products of the centre can put to productive use their skills in rural areas. Similarly other centres such as the Textile Training Centre; the Domestic Science Centre for housewives the Opportunities Industrialization Centre; the St. Brigid's Social Centre; and the Citizenship and Leadership Training Centres, and the Farm Institutes to name but a few, all cater for various trades, skills and knowledge across the entire country. The clientelle for most of these are school leavers, unemployed youths and adults, peasants, farmers, housewives etc.

Programmes at these centres are designed to give training in textile weaving and dying; vocational skills such as woodwork, carpentry, bricklaying, mechanical engineering; home management, library skills, office

skills, accounting, book-keeping, elements of vehicle maintenance, farming, agricultural techniques, citizenship and leadership skills especially in the management of co-operatives. the centres also offer opportunities for those who want to upgrade their skills by executing up-grading programmes in the various fields of their different specialization.

(i) **Non-Formal Education Programmes in Mali**

Although Mali's non-formal education programmes are based on familiar models, they are unique in more than one sense. First they are a multiplicity of out-of-school programmes providing training in functional literacy, farming, rural trades, crafts, health and nutrition.

Secondly institutions such as centres d'animation rurale;" movement des pionniers; and centres d'orientation practiques; experience major co-ordination problems, and coupled with the fact that resources made available for non-formal education programmes are extrimely limited for meeting large scale minimum learning needs for rural communities. However with the limited resources, Mali has been successful in executing non-formal education programmes for rural animators and practical orientation for those working with rural communities.

(j) **Non-Formal Education Programmes in Cameroon**

In Cameroon there are those non-formal education programmes which cater for marginal and special groups such as deliquents and juveniles. To this effect, there are two youth centres for education in the country each of which provides education in a number of subjects such as civics, hygiene, health and nutrition and in psychomotor skills so that the products of the centres become more responsible citizens and can fend for themselves.

Other centres such as ZAPI (Zones d'Action Prioritaires Integrees) undertake programmes specially designed for rural populations. With such centres the focus of activities is on increasing agricultural output; promoting community based development, and on the reduction of rural-urban migration. There are also these centres which have programmes catering for small business and entrepreneurs and middle-level managers. These are taught accounting, business administration, management, and the elements of entrepreneurship.

(k) **The Brigades Movement in Botswana**

As a movement its primary aim is to provide non-formal education programmes to serve all Botswanabut with greater emphasis on serving the needs of out-of-school youth, the unemployed and women. The programmes, therefore, put great emphasis on vociational training for primary school leavers outside the formal school system; on activities that lead to gainful employment and improved productivity; and on the-job-training so that trainees adopt development-oriented values, attitudes, knowledge and skills which would free the country from too much dependence on South Africa.

The Brigade movement operates through centres. There are no less than sixteen centres all over the country. Each of these centres has its own specific objectives, organization, mode of finance and patterns of training.

Trainees from these centres who have mastered some of the productive skills needed for the development of the Botswana economy are assisted to create employment by the Botswana Enterprises Development Unit (BEDU). This is to ensure that the people of Botswana are fully engaged and involved in national development and as far as possible become less dependent on the Republic of South Africa for earning a living. So far Brigade entrepreneurs have concentrated their activities in leather, metal, art and wood works; clothing and garment manufacturing,; upholstery building engraving and printing.

With this focus on education and training for self-reliance, the Brigade Movement which started as a small activity in one district, now operates as a national affair with a full National Brigade Co-ordinating Committee. Its main activities for national development., therefore, include plumbing, light engineering, carpentry, building, agriculture, textile, vehicle maintenance and business management, accounting and book-keeping.

(l) **Non-Formal Education Programmes in Zambia**

The Centre for Continuing Education of the University of Zambia is concerned mainly with research and teaching in the field of adult education; and in participating directly in the national adult education programmes. There are however, many programmes and

projects in Zambia which center for primary school leavers, unemployed school leavers (primary and secondary), for women, for youths and adults.

Most of such projects and programmes teach trades of varius kinds such as farming and agricultural skills, health and nutrition, arts and crafts, home economics, accounting and office skills. The Lunnshya Youth Self-Help Project is one such project which has helped school leavers obtain skills and knowledge for self-employment and income generating activities. Similarly the Kalulushi Farm College trains youths for two years in farming techniques for those who are already farmers and those who intend to become farmers.

(2) **Focus of Well-Known NFE Programme**

In the foregoing pages, an analysis has been made of some of the non-formal education programmes geared toward national devleopment. The analysis reveals four basic categories of programmes according to the objectives, aims and subject matter of the activities undertaken viz:

(i) **Basic and General Education**

Non-Formal Education Programmes for basic and general education are of a multipurpose nature and involve a variety of activities. Some of these programmes are literacy campaigns and programmes in Ethiopia, Tanzania, Mali, Burkina Faso and Mauritania; school equivalency programmes conducted through correspondence education eg. Malawi, Kenya and Nigeria; and distance teaching eg. Lesotho. Then there are the youth clubs and centres such as those in Nigeria, Botswana, Ghana and Benin; sports, recreational and cultural programmes undertaken in all African countries particularly in Ethiopia, Ghana, Senegal, Zambia, Kenya, Mali, Zimbabwe etc. Finally under this title, there are guidance and constructive activities for special groups such as deliquents, prostitutes, juveniles criminals and the handicapped. A number of African countries provide activities for these special groups. Then there are multipurpose training activities for girls and women in almost every African country. In fact the role of women in development has risen to great prominence and hence the need to provide for special training for the female folk.

(ii) **Leadership and Civic Services**

Many countries have national youth service programme for spearheading national development. Examples of

national service programmes can be found in Zimbabwe, Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, Egypt, Libya, Tanzania etc. Then there are the brigades programmes e.g. the Ghana and Botswana Brigades; then the pioneers and corps programmes such as the Malawi Young Pioneers and Mali's Movement des pionniers. Again under this broad title comes the community development services undertaken in Uganda, Tanzania, Senegal, Benin and Burkina Faso.

(iii) **Artisanal and Vocational Training**

Many non-formal education programmes prepare both the youth and adults for various trades and vocations. Almost every African country has some rural training schemes, projects or activities undertaken at rural training centres eg. Burkina Faso's Centres for Rural Education; Ghana's National Women's Vocational Training Centre; Senegal's Rural Training Centres; Zambia's Youth Self-Help Projects and Lesotho's Self-Reliance Projects.

Then there are many apprenticeship shemes in countries, like Nigeria, Swaziland, Kenya, Malawi, Zambia, and Ghana. Other artisanal and vocational programmes are undertaken by village polytechnics as provided by the well-known examples of Kenya.

(iv) **Farming and Agricultural Training**

Many programmes are carried under the banner of farming nd agricultural training eg. young farmers clubs in Nigeria, Kenya, Cote d'Ivoire and Senegal; the land settlment schemes for youths e.g. Uganda, Malawi and Ethiopia; co-operatives e.g. Kenya, Tanzania, Senegal etc; farm learning centres, schools, colleges and institutes which are in every African country with great emphasis on farming and agricultural techniques, marketing and improved productivity.

VI. Fostering Non-Formal Education Programmes for National Development

A central question to be answered is why it is necessary to foster and improve the effectiveness of non-formal education programmes in preparing both the youths and adults with essential skills, knowledge and attitudes for participation in national development. Part of the answer to this question is that:

(i) the pressure on educational resources and the ever-increasing and unsatisfied demand for education have made it imperative to seek new educational approaches to development. Non-formal education programmes have a low per capita or instructional unit costs compared

to formal education programmes. At the same time non-formal education has a short gestation period for an educational programme but with effective results at low costs; and

(ii) that formal education is not tailored, often times, to the socio-economic needs as well as to the self-fulfilment and aspirations of individuals. Criticism has often been made of formal schools that their content, curricula, organization methods, age-structure and practices do not realistically help to equip rural societies with the right attitudes, knowledge and skills required for employment (self or salaried), household management, family responsibilities, community work, civic duties and self-fulfilment in a rural setting..

The need for fostering non-formal education programmes, therefore, stems from the fact that they tend to have an advantage over formal education programmes in terms of costs and in being tailor-made to the needs of their clientelle whether they are in rural or urban areas. It is for this reason that every effort should be made to foster and support them and to ensure that they are made more effective.

However, before non-formal education programmes can be made more effective, a word of caution is necessary. Many non-formal education programmes in Africa have failed to respond to national development needs because:

(a) there is always a tendency to adopt improted models of non-formal education programmes without tailoring them to local and national needs. Many programmes have, in the course of implementation, proved to be unsuitable to individual and national needs because of their imported content,

(b) the tendency to launch expensive long-term programmes on the basis of external financing for the first five or so years without making adequate provisions for subsequent financing when external finance is discontinued. Well conceived non-formal education programmes have collapsed as soon as external funds have dried up. The effects on some aspects of national development has been quite remarkable,

(c) lack of effective co-ordination and collaboration among government ministries, voluntary and international agencies and parastatal bodies involved in non-formal education programmes. All

these spend substantial resources on their unconnected small projects which often scratch at the edge of a huge national problem. Effective co-ordination would ensure that the limited and scarce resources are judiciously utilized in the solution of national problem.

(d) the tendency to depend on expatriate personnel without full commitment to the development of local expertise to take over from expatriates as soon as possible. Many assisted programmes have suddenly collapsed as soon as expatriates have left the country because local expertise has been lacking to continue with the work. Closely allied to this is the fact that with the availability of technical assistance, costly and elaborate facilities for non-formal education programmes have been provided the maintenance and expansion of which have proved difficult using local and domestic resources. African countries have been unable to keep the pace and momentum started with the use of foreign funds.

(e) failure to ask searching questions about a programme being proposed and without testing the feasibility of proposed actions. Also many pilot projects have been started without careful coordination as to how they would operate on a national scale. Neither have the pilot projects been given a good testing period to assess the benefits and value of a project.

Inspite of these impediments, non-formal education programme can be made effective through:

(i) concerted efforts, collaboration and co-ordination of programme activities in the larger educationl and development context. Since there is too much wasteful fragmentation arising out of diverse sponsorships of programmes, efforts should be made for collaboration in the conception, development and implementation of programmes and projects. Programmes suffer because there are too many professionals semi-professionals and laymen engaged in non-formal education programmes who lack broader conception of educational needs and rural development.

In this regard, therefore, it is necessary to establish and create institutional

machineries for the organization and management of non-formal education programmes. Kenya for instance has created a Board of Adult Education and Tanzania has established the Institute of Adult Education and at district level established co-ordinating committees for effective co-ordination of programes and for facilitating exchange of information about the country's respective non-formal education programmes.

(ii) The development of effective personnel for three key functions of non-formal education programmes viz: planning and co-ordinating on a full-scale of non-formal education programmes; managing individual programmes; and group leardership and day-to-day design and instruction of programmed activities.

Many countries in Africa lack specialists in educational planning, curriculum design, and evaluation and in the co-ordination of programmes. Of great importance also is lack of expertise in the management of individual programmes, let alone in providing leadership for the community. Every effort should therefore be made to train staff with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes and to ensure that those who have to work in rural areas (i.e. field staff) have some form of incentives to ensure that staff turnover is reduced to a minimum. It is no use trainig people while the system cannot keep, as there can be no continuity of programmes if trained staff cannot remain within the overall management of the programme.

(iii) central to the issue of effectiveness is the question of costs i.e. how to operate effective programmes at low costs. In other words how are we to operate programmes using both conventional and unconventional sources and making sure that the whole country benefits from available resources. It is important to emphasize the fact that low cost per se is not a virtue for advocating the development of non-formal education, but rather low costs accompanied by effective results. In this regard, it is important to make use of existing formal education facilities for non-formal programmes; or borrow air time from the radio or television stations as they do in Kenya, Cote d'Ivoire and Malawi

for non-formal education programmes particularly where such programmes are used as offering a second chance for furthering once's education, or for knowledge and skills improvement.

One observation to make is that non-formal education may have lower costs because it tends to use volunteers part-timers and facilities other than its own. Hence the rural costs of non-formal programmes may not be easy to compute. All the same costs and effectiveness of the programme should be taken into account when developing and implementing non-formal education programmes.

(iv) many non-formal education programmes are born out of administrative action. Yet their effective implementation may be heavily dependent on the political climate and milieu in which they operate. It is not how well and articulated a programme is, but also what political forces and pressures do operate in a given country. Political backing and forces have been behind the successful implementation of the literacy campaigns and programmes in Ethiopia and Tanzania. Indeed most programmes require political support at the various stages; planning, implementation, evaluation and monitoring and follow-up.

Frequent government changes may result into a number of programmes being discontinued, or simply a lack of enthusiasm by the public because they feel that they have not been adequately consulted; or that the public is being pushed into a programme for which they see no relevance for it in their daily life. To this effect therefore, it is important that government should, where necessary, seek the support of the people, and that non-formal education programmes should be given full political backing for effective results.

(v) another area of great concern is the need for improved and more relevant curricula for participants of non-formal education. Voices have been heard about non-formal education taking on the unfinished business of the school and completing it. At the same time the quality of those coming out of the primary system is very

low so that the products of the system are ill-equipped and ill-prepared for participation in national development. Since primary schools put very little emphasis on the development of productive skills, some-one else has to do it, and in this case non-formal education.

At the same time, if non-formal education is to play the role of an alternative to educational attainment, there is need to re-align the curricula of both formal and non-formal education so that students may move from one to the other.

It is not just the movement of students but that it will also be necessary to have complementary admission policies in respect of second chance education. Students who have used the non-formal education avenue to get their education should not necessarily be penalized when they want to improve their educational attainment.

What is more is that education and development, particularly when the latter is considered from the standpoint of a basic needs approach, should be seen as two sides of the same coin related by destiny. Secondly, the responsibility for the development of knowledge, skills and shaping of attitudes through education and training falls squarely on national governments, the parents, individuals and the community. This makes it imperative that whatever education is being planned, the programmes and activities must be related to the needs of the individuals, community and the nation. Many programmes in Africa have not been responsive to community or national needs because the curricula have not been appropriately planned and developed because of the lack of curriculum planners and specialists.

(vi) of greater importance still, is the need to focus on non-formal education programmes which relate in a realistic manner to employment opportunities. Even this realism of programmes cannot by itself create employment: there are factors to be taken into account e.g. land reform, investment opportunities; credit facilities, economic processes and structures. Education and trining ensures that youths and adults are equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for whatever employment opportunities exist in their own locality, be it self or salaries jobs. In this way, training programmes must realistically

appraise the economic conditions operating in a given country, locality or region. What is a major problem in Africa (though not seen by many as such) is that training managers often take it for granted that youths who are properly trained in new skills should find no difficulty in automatically being absorbed productively into a national economy. This is not usually the case. A person may be properly trained, possessing the right skills knowledge and attitudes, but this does not give him/her automatic employment.

(vii) though last but not least in importance is the question of assessing the effectiveness of non-formal education in national development, and determine how such programmes could be improved and made more effective. The problem as regards to non-formal education programmes in Africa is that little or no attempt has been made to assess, even very roughly, the programmes internal efficiency i.e. cost-effectiveness or the programmes beneficial social and economic impact in relation to the investment made in respect of the programme i.e. the cost-benefit relationship.

If fair judgement is to be made of the non-formal education programme's productivity, it is absolutely necessary to evaluate such programmes both formally and informally. At the same time a sample of previous participants should be followed up to see if the knowledge and skills acquired through such training are being beneficial to the individual and the community. Perhaps what is more, is that there is need for practical research to ensure that better and more workable evaluation, monitoring and feedback techniques are developed.

VII. A Strategy for Action: Final Remarks

There are many children in Africa who for one reason or another are not at school, have dropped out of school and those who have been pushed out of the system. Many of these revert to illiteracy in a continent already saturated with illiterates. Education continues to be short of both human, inancial and material resources. While the social demand for education grows at an alarming rate, nothing short of a truly massive and innovative efforts to the end of the century will remedy the situation. These efforts involve first and foremost, clearly and well defined policies on national development planning and

in particular on education and its planning. Second it should include well conceived national development strategy particularly the development of education (formal, non-formal and informal). Third, the financing of education to show the possibles and impossibles; fourth, resource utilization in education and fifth what action will be necessary to ensure that current and future programmes have the desired effects on individuals, the parents, community and the nation. In these concluding remarks an examination will be made of some of these issues.

(a) **Educational Development Policies**

Issues relative to education policies are: the fast increasing number of school age children who are out of school; the decline in enrolment at the various levels of the system; the quality of education; the resources devoted to education; financing of education; what curricula best equips nations with knowledge, skills and attitudes; and finally the management of education. All these have relevance in respect of the development of non-formal education for national development.

As the school age population continues to increase at an alarming rate, African countries are continuously finding it very difficult to provide for those who need education. As the pressure continues, formal systems cannot sustain the momentum, and therefore it becomes important for national govenments to look at non-formal education and training as important complements and supplements of formal education and training and hot as substitutes. Since non-formal education training holds a lot of promise and potential, educational policy in Africa should endeavour to strengthen the human resource base for the development of non-formal education programmes. So far many African countries treat non-formal education as second rate, falling outside the main stream of the national education system; national planning policy, and educational planning.

The importance of non-formal education as an instrument for the development of skills and knowledge cannot be over-emphasized. More so when account is taken of the fact that current education policies by external funding agencies up to the year 2000 A.D. will restrict the flow of funds for formal education thereby placing a greater burden on non-formal education to complete the unfinished business of the formal school. In this regard, African educational policy should consider the best approaches of maximizing the use of existing educational resources (human, material and financial) to meet the growing demand for education. Such policies should not be built around formal education, but should sericusly explore the use of NFE as a major

alternative to the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes; for providing second chance education and for the development of literacy.

(b) A Development Strategy for Education

A cardinal point to remember is not where to find the financial resources but how to make judicious use of what is made available; and how to prepare students for national development by evolving effective policies and programmes which would turn the products of the system (formal or non-formal) into productive citizens, and be more self-reliant. A serious challenge to African countries is how to develop and use education as an elixir for transforming people from being development liabilities to being human resources. It is this challenge which will shape Africa's development stragegy for education.

Current education practices, particularly formal education, continue to produce rural-urban migrants disocialized youths, and unemployed and underemployed young men. It is not therefore a question of how much education is given to the young, how well they performed at school or how much they excelled in their school activities; but how well-equipped they are to face the problems of life in rural or urban areas. This brings in the issue of quality and the relevance of curricula to national needs. Therefore whatever strategy one proposes for further development of education in Africa, it should be based on African realities.

Primary and secondary school programmes should have a strong element of productive activities to ensure that products of the system are equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes. Unfortunately, the provision of productive activities in schools is proving to be very expensive for many countries. One financing institution for instance would like to see that technical education is not part of the main stream of secondary education. Rather it should be privatalized i.e. should become the responsibility of private institutions, industries and voluntary agencies.

An alternative strategy would be to strengthen the role of non-formal education for skills development. In this regard, the learning experiences which should be pursued ought to be practical, non-theoretical, less abstract, and with specific goals based on pragmatic needs of the individual, society and the nation. This would entail a reorientation of the curricula not just emphasizing on acquisition of knowledge, nummeracy and literacy but practical and useful skills in farming, agriculture, health, nutrition, arts and crafts, woodwork, carpentry, weaving, tanning, basketry, building, construction, home economics, accounting,

home and business management, and entrepreneurship.

This re-orientation calls for staff to be conversant with the new direction of educational activities. In this regard, priority should be given to the training (both pre and in-service) of staff engaged in non-formal education activities. In particular, instructors ought to be men and women of divergent abilities able to deal with communities in rural areas helping them in their various preoccupations.

(c) **Financing Non-Formal Education Programmes**

A major factor other than human resources affecting the implementation of programmes and projects, is finance. Non-formal education in most African countries is not accorded high priority and as such it does not get adequate funds for its programmes. Arguments have been made that since education (formal or non-formal) has become very expensive, government subsidies to education should be removed and let those who take part in the education process pay for it especially at the third level. Rather than remove subsidies, it is strongly felt that governments could introduce fiscal measures for the collection and management of subsidies. Instead of removing subsidies, students could be encouraged to live out instead of staying on compus for which they could be given a living out allowance; the overall budget for which could be much lower than living on campus. Extra-mural programmes which are part of higher institutions have showed that one can pursue a programme of studies effectively without living on compus. There is no reason why effective resource utilization cannot be made by encouragng students to live out.

Except for literacy programmes, most non-formal education activities are amenable to fee payment. Most participants pay fees for their participation in an organized programme. In the same manner it may be necessary for fees to be charged for formal education programmes. At the same time, it is being suggested in connexion with the cost of financing education programmes that non-formal education programmes render themselves open to study by correspondence and distance teaching. Since governments have reached saturation points in terms of paying the education bill, it is important to explore new avenues for producing the same results at less the cost through correspondence education and distance teaching.

Finally in connexion with funds for education, it may also be necessary to introduce a work and study programme for third level institutions. Formal education students

could go on work attachement for say, three/four months in a year during which time they could get paid and credit points given to them for the work done. The money so earned could go towards the cost of their education during the following semester or year. Such a work-and-study programme should be legally instituted and should become part and parcel of the education system. On the other hand many non-formal education programmes can operate on the basis of learning while working and vice versa. This may make non-formal education appraoches to education more workthwhile than the traditional formal approaches.

VIII. Conclusions and Policy Options

In this analysis of non-formal education programmes, account has been given of the policies which govern the development of such programmes; the various clientelle who benefit from participating in the programmes; examples have been given of some of the programmes which are currently taking place in Africa; and how such programmes ought to be made more effective in their delivery capability.

A major point to be emphasized here is that African countries will need to review their national economic, development, planning and educational policies if education and trianing are to serve a vital role in human resource development. This is an imperative necessity considering that financial resources for education for national development purposes are steeply declining. At the same time, educational institutions are unable to meet the increasing demand for education with the result that overall enrolement at the various levels of the system are declining. In this regard, therefore, non-formal education has to play a major role in completing the unfinished business of the schools.

Another point is that external forces especially donor agencies are operating more vigourously on African countries to do things as seen by external donors that sooner or later the continent will lose a grip of what it owns and be swept away amidst a whirlwind. Through well defined policies, Africa should on its own decipher its future, map its strategy and commit itself to self-reliance self-fulfilment in spite of the external forces. A greater emphasis on non-formal education approach to the development of skills, knowledge and attitudes might provide a better answer than the traditional approaches as characterized by formal systems.

In view of the foregoing, member States may wish to consider and adopt some of the following policy options and strategies viz:

(i) Member States should exert concerted efforts and develop machinery for collaboration and co-ordination of programmes and activities in the larger educational and development context. To reduce wasteful fragmentation arising out of diverse sponsorship of programmes, efforts should be made for collaboration in the conception, development and implementation of non-formal education programmes and projects. Account should be taken of the fact that there are too many semi-professionals and laymen engaged in non-formal education programmes operating as professionals when they lack proper knowledge and skills in the fields/areas of operation.

(ii) Member States should give top priority to the development functions in non-formal education viz: planning and co-ordination of non-formal eeucation programmes; mananging individual programmes; and group leadership and day-to-day design and instruction of programmed activities.

(iii) Member States should seriously explore the possibility of using, or intensify the use of existing formal education facilities for non-formal education activities particularly where such non-formal education programmes or activities are offered as second chance education or for schooling equivalency.

(iv) Member States should take note of the fact that while non-formal education programmes are born out of administrative action, their effective implementation is heavily dependent on political support and commitment. It is important therefore that member States should give political backing of non-formal education programmes and should seek the support of the people and non-formal education clientelle.

(v) Since the clients of non-formal education are the unfinished products and the "left-outs" of the school system, there is need to re-align the curricula of the formal and non-formal education to ensure complementarity and supplementarity of the two sub-systems and to put greater emphasis on productive skills,

(vi) Every effort should be made to assess the internal efficiency of non-formal education programmes i.e. the cost effectiveness of programmes or their beneficial, social and economic impact in relation to the investments made in respect of the programmes. To make a fair

judgement on the productivity of such programmes, it is necessary to evaluate non-formal education programmes at all stages of the programmes and to conduct follow-up activities to determine the benefits of such programmes.

(vii) Since formal education systems cannot sustain the momentum generated by increased demand for the provision of educational opportunities for the majority of the population, member States should look at non-formal education as an important complement and supplement of formal education i.e. as an alternative route to formal education for school equivalency. In this regard therefore, every effort should be made to strengthen the human financial and material resource bases for the development of non-formal education. To this effect, it should be accorded as much priority as formal education system and should not be treated as second rate educational system falling outside the main stream of the national education system; national planning policy and educational planning of the country concerned,

(viii) Member States should seriously review non-formal education curricula so that it reflects the needs of its clientelle; it is atuned to the requirements of work and employment; and related to productive activities. Non-formal education curricula should not just emphasize on in - schooling equivalency through distance teaching; on adult education or on literacy work. The curriculum should focus on education for productivity, for self-fulfilment; self-employment and income generation,

(ix) Member States should accord high priority to the development of non-formal education and this should also be reflected in the financial allotment to it, rather than depend on voluntary contribution, charitable organizations, agencies and gifts. Fiscal measures could be introduced to ensure that adequate funds are collected and judiciously used for non-formal education for development. In effect both formal and non-formal education should be used as instruments of national development.